

# Satellite-Based Energy Balance to Assess Within-Population Variance of Crop Coefficient Curves

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**Abstract:** Quantifying evapotranspiration (ET) from agricultural fields is important for field water management, water resources planning, and water regulation. Traditionally, ET from agricultural fields has been estimated by multiplying the weather-based reference ET by crop coefficients ( $K_c$ ) determined according to the crop type and the crop growth stage. Recent development of satellite remote sensing ET models has enabled us to estimate ET and  $K_c$  for large populations of fields. This study evaluated the distribution of  $K_c$  over space and time for a large number of individual fields by crop type using ET maps created by a satellite based energy balance (EB) model. Variation of  $K_c$  curves was found to be substantially larger than that for the normalized difference vegetation index because of the impacts of random wetting events on  $K_c$ , especially during initial and development growth stages. Two traditional  $K_c$  curves that are widely used in Idaho for crop management and water rights regulation were compared against the satellite-derived  $K_c$  curves. Simple adjustment of the traditional  $K_c$  curves by shifting dates for emergence, effective full cover, and termination enabled the traditional curves to better fit  $K_c$  curves as determined by the EB model. Applicability of the presented techniques in humid regions having higher chances of cloudy dates was discussed.

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## Introduction

For more than 30 years, the primary method for estimating evapotranspiration (ET) has been from reference ET and crop coefficient ( $K_c$ ) curves (Jensen 1973; Allen et al. 1998). Crop coefficients generally found in literature, such as by Doorenbos and Pruitt (1977), Wright (1981, 1982, and 1995), Snyder et al. (1989a, 1989b), Jensen et al. (1990), and Allen et al. (1998), represent average to optimum agricultural management under well-watered conditions. These coefficients are typically determined from point-based measurements, and are unable to describe the variation in  $K_c$  for the large population of fields in a region because “mean”  $K_c$  curves must represent a single averaged crop growth and water management condition. Actual  $K_c$  populations have inherent variation because of variation in crop variety, irrigation method, weather, soil type, salinity and fertility, and/or field management that can be different from the field used to

establish the literature values. This is especially true under water limiting or extreme salinity conditions. Quantification and characterization of  $K_c$  populations for various crops in a region would be valuable in defining average water use by crop type under field conditions and the range in water use. This type of information can be helpful in determining impacts of water scarcity or need for remedial help in improving water or agronomic management.

Alternative means for estimating field-scale ET include satellite image-based remote sensing methods. These methods might be divided into two categories: empirical/statistical approaches and energy balance (EB) approaches. Empirical/statistical approaches correlate ET either to air-surface temperature differences such as reported by Caselles et al. (1998), or to vegetation indices as frequently used for “basal”  $K_c$  estimation for agricultural crops (Neale et al. 1989; Choudhury et al. 1994; Hunsaker et al. 2003). On the other hand, EB approaches derive ET through completing a full energy balance computation using methods such as a two-layer model and the dual-temperature-difference method developed by Norman et al. (1995 and 2000), surface energy balance algorithms for land (SEBAL) model (Bastiaanssen et al. 1998a), and evaporation fraction estimation method for MODIS (Nishida et al. 2003). In this study, a satellite-based EB model, which is a variant of the SEBAL model, was applied to determine actual  $K_c$  for a large number of agricultural fields in southern Idaho. Crop coefficients derived from the EB model are compared to widely used  $K_c$  curves in Idaho, and the potential and applicability of satellite based  $K_c$  curves are discussed.

## Energy Balance Model

The SEBAL is an ET estimation approach based on satellite images via the computation of a land surface energy balance meth-

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odology developed by Bastiaanssen (Bastiaanssen et al. 1998a; Bastiaanssen 2000). The model has been tested at a number of locations especially in arid-semiarid regions including Spain, Italy, Turkey, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka, Egypt, Niger, and China (Bastiaanssen et al. 1998b; Bastiaanssen and Bos 1999; Hemakumara et al. 2003; 2005). The EB model used in this study is a variant of the SEBAL model of Bastiaanssen (Bastiaanssen et al. 1998a), extended by the Univ. of Idaho (Tasumi et al. 2000, 2003; Allen et al. 2002, 2003) for applications in the western United States, where generally good networks of electronic agricultural weather stations are available. The two major extensions to SEBAL are: (1) modifying the internal procedure to calibrate the energy at the two extreme conditions (i.e., wet and dry conditions) utilizing reference ET as predicted by the ASCE standardized Penman-Monteith alfalfa-reference ET procedure (EWRI 2002) for the wet condition, and a surface soil layer water balance based on the *FAO-56* soil evaporation estimation procedure (Allen et al. 1998) for the dry condition, and (2) incorporating relatively complex geometric equations to integrate solar radiation incident to sloping terrain over 24 h periods. The first extension refines the accuracy for predicting ET from agricultural crops by calibrating the latent heat flux density at the two extreme conditions, and it makes the EB model consistent with the reference crop ET approach. This style of internal calibration eliminates the need for external atmospheric correction for surface albedo and temperature estimation, because the linear calibration function for sensible heat estimation in the energy balance does not carry constant or linear types of error generated during intermediate calculations into the ET estimate (Tasumi et al. 2003). Use of  $ET_r$  during image processing fosters congruency between  $K_c$  values determined from the EB model and traditional ground-based  $K_c$  methods. It also facilitates extrapolation of crop ET between image dates using intervening weather data (Allen et al. 2002). The second extension provided for application of the EB model to mountainous regions using a digital elevation model (DEM). The EB model has been tested (Allen et al. 2002; Tasumi et al. 2003) and applied in Idaho (Morse et al. 2000, 2001; Allen et al. 2003). A later section provides a comparison of the EB model with lysimeter measurements of ET.

In the EB model, ET is estimated as the residual of an energy balance applied to the land surface for each pixel of the satellite image (e.g., for each 30 m × 30 m square for Landsat 5 TM and Landsat 7 ETM+ images)

$$\lambda E = R_n - H - G \quad (1)$$

where  $\lambda E$ =latent heat flux ( $W m^{-2}$ );  $R_n$ =net radiation ( $W m^{-2}$ );  $H$ =sensible heat flux ( $W m^{-2}$ ); and  $G$ =soil heat flux ( $W m^{-2}$ ).

Net radiation is computed from the land surface radiation balance as

$$R_n = (1 - \alpha)R_s + (\epsilon L_{in} - L_{out}) \quad (2)$$

where  $\alpha$ =surface albedo;  $R_s$ =solar radiation ( $W m^{-2}$ );  $\epsilon$ =surface emissivity for accounting for reflectance of incoming longwave radiation at land surface; and  $L_{in}$  and  $L_{out}$ =incoming and outgoing longwave radiation ( $W m^{-2}$ ), respectively. Surface albedo is determined by integrating at-satellite spectral reflectances in the six short-wave bands of the Landsat image and then applying a correction based on general air transmittance estimated using elevation and humidity (EWRI 2002).  $L_{in}$  is calculated using air temperature as approximated from satellite-derived surface temperature for a wet agricultural field and using a regionally calibrated air emissivity.  $L_{out}$  is computed as a function of surface temperature derived from the satellite image. Surface emissivity

is computed from vegetation indices derived from two of the short-wave bands. Potential values for  $R_s$  are determined using theoretical clear sky curves (Allen 1996; EWRI 2002).

The normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) in the EB model is calculated using at-satellite reflectances of Bands 3 and 4 of Landsat

$$NDVI = \frac{ref_4 - ref_3}{ref_4 + ref_3} \quad (3)$$

where  $ref_3$  and  $ref_4$ =at-satellite reflectances for Bands 3 and 4, respectively.

Soil heat flux is empirically estimated using a function by Bastiaanssen (2000) based on albedo, surface temperature, NDVI, and net radiation

$$G = (T_s - 273.16)(0.0038 + 0.0074\alpha) \times (1 - 0.98NDVI^4)R_n \quad (4)$$

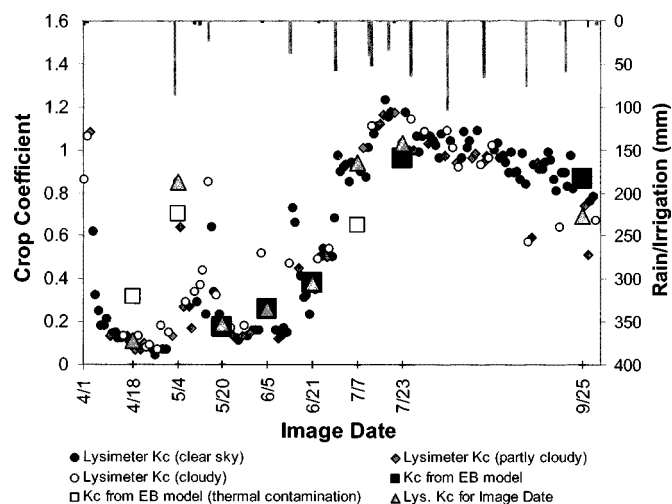
where  $T_s$ =surface temperature in Kelvin.

Sensible heat flux in the EB model is estimated from wind speed and surface temperature using an “internally calibrated” near surface to air temperature difference function, similar to SEBAL (Bastiaanssen et al. 1998a; Bastiaanssen 2000)

$$H = \frac{\rho_{air} C_p (a + bT_s)}{r_{ah}} \quad (5)$$

where  $\rho_{air}$ =air density ( $kg m^{-3}$ );  $C_p$ =specific heat capacity of air ( $\approx 1,004 J kg^{-1} K^{-1}$ );  $r_{ah}$ =aerodynamic resistance to heat transport ( $s m^{-1}$ );  $T_s$ =surface temperature (K); and  $a$  and  $b$ =empirical coefficients determined through the internal calibration for each satellite image. The term “ $a + bT_s$ ” in the equation represents the near surface to air temperature difference  $dT$  predicted between a height near the surface (0.1 m) and a height at about 2 m above the surface. Use of an internally calibrated  $dT$  (i.e., gradient) largely compensates for problems caused by differences between radiometric and aerodynamic surface temperature and the unknown spatial variation in air temperature as, for example, described by Moran et al. (1989) and Kustas and Norman (1996). Determination of  $r_{ah}$  in Eq. (5) requires iteration for air stability corrections applying Monin-Obukhov similarity theory (Bastiaanssen 2000).

The internal calibration of the EB model trains the surface energy balance to predict ET for the two extreme conditions referred to as “cold” and “hot” pixels resembling full-cover, well-watered alfalfa and a dry agricultural bare soil, respectively. The ET values for these two conditions are estimated by weather data, assisted by the ASCE standardized Penman-Monteith alfalfa-reference ET procedure (EWRI 2002) and an *FAO-56* based water balance applied to the surface soil layer (Allen et al. 1998). Values for  $dT$  at these two extreme pixels are back calculated based on the energy balance, and the empirical coefficients  $a$  and  $b$  in Eq. (5) are determined assuming a linear relation between  $dT$  and surface temperature. When systematic errors in intermediate calculations (e.g., albedo, surface temperature, net radiation, and soil heat flux) occur, the internal calibration process compensates the intermediate errors by deriving a “biased”  $dT$  function. This makes the ET estimate consistent with the expected ET as predicted by weather data and satellite image data at the two extreme conditions. In contrast to the EB model, SEBAL (Bastiaanssen et al. 1998a) typically uses  $T_s$  from a local water body as the cold pixel, and defines  $H$  and  $dT$  for the pixel as zero. The SEBAL defines ET from the hot pixel is zero. The simpler definitions for the two extreme pixels in SEBAL makes the model applicable for



**Fig. 1.** Comparison of  $K_c$  by energy balance model and by lysimeter for sugar beets near Kimberly, Id., 1989 (unpublished lysimeter data from Wright, 2000, USDA-ARS, Kimberly, Id.). Cloud levels were defined by ratio of measured solar radiation to theoretical clear sky solar radiation ( $R_s/R_{so}$ ) as; “clear sky:”  $R_s/R_{so} \geq 0.85$ ; “partly cloudy:”  $0.7 \leq R_s/R_{so} < 0.85$ ; “cloudy:”  $R_s/R_{so} < 0.7$ .

countries where high-quality weather data are difficult to obtain. However, the practice of assuming  $H=0$  at water body temperature may cause some error in the estimate of  $H$  and  $ET$  for cold agriculture pixels in arid regions (Tasumi 2003).

Once  $ET$  at the moment of the satellite image is estimated, the crop coefficient ( $K_c$ ) is calculated for each image pixel as

$$K_c = \frac{ET}{ET_r} \quad (6)$$

where  $ET_r$  = alfalfa reference  $ET$  calculated from local weather data using the ASCE standardized Penman–Monteith alfalfa reference method (EWRI 2002) applied hourly.

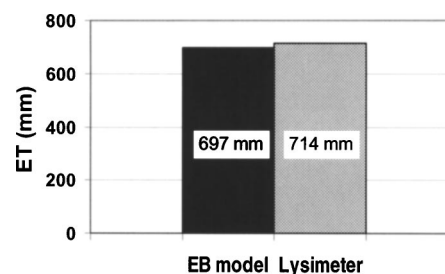
For horizontal flat surfaces, 24 h  $ET$  is estimated by setting the 24 h average  $K_c$  equal to the “instantaneous”  $K_c$  calculated in Eq. (6)

$$ET_{(24)} = K_c ET_{r(24)} \quad (7)$$

The  $K_c$  in Eqs. (6) and (7) has also been referred to as the  $ET_r$  fraction ( $ET_r/F$ ) (Allen et al. 2002, 2003), and has been shown to be relatively consistent during daytime periods and between 24 h average and midday satellite image times (Allen et al. 2002; Trezza 2002; Tasumi 2003; Romero 2003). Additional adjustments are applied during the extrapolation of  $K_c$  from instantaneous to 24 h for sloping surfaces. Monthly and seasonal  $K_c$  and  $ET$  can further be estimated by linearly interpolating the  $K_c$  values over periods inbetween two consecutive images.

### Sample Comparison of Evapotranspiration and $K_c$ Predictions with Lysimeter Measurements

Crop coefficients and the cumulative  $ET$  derived from the satellite based EB model are compared with independent lysimeter-measured data from the USDA-ARS facility at Kimberly, Id. (Wright 1982) for a sugar beet crop grown in 1989 (Figs. 1 and 2). The lysimeter data were measured by a  $1.8 \times 1.8$  m weighing lysimeter having resolution of about 0.07 mm for daily readings (Wright 1991). Nine Landsat images from April to September



**Fig. 2.** Seasonal evapotranspiration (April–September 1989) by energy balance model and lysimeter measurement for sugar beets near Kimberly, Id. (unpublished lysimeter data from Wright 2000, USDA-ARS, Kimberly, Id.)

1989 were used for the comparison. No cloud-free Landsat images were available during August–early September. The  $180 \times 140$  m lysimeter research field was smaller than the minimum requirement of  $240 \times 240$  m that would ensure at least one  $120 \times 120$  m thermal pixel of Landsat 5 to reside completely inside the field for all images. For this reason, the satellite observed surface temperatures for pixels over the lysimeter field were occasionally impacted by portions of pixels lying over adjacent plots having dissimilar field conditions and temperature. Evapotranspiration is not estimated with typical accuracy when the thermal pixel over the lysimeter is heavily contaminated by areas outside of the lysimeter field because the EB model relies heavily on the thermal band information to solve the energy balance. Estimated  $K_c$  for dates having heavy thermal contamination problems could not be used for evaluating model accuracy. Results for these dates are labeled “ $K_c$  from EB model (thermal contamination)” in Fig. 1. This type of thermal contamination is not a problem for larger fields ( $>10$  ha), except for about 50 m (Landsat 7) to 100 m (Landsat 5) strips around the field boundaries.

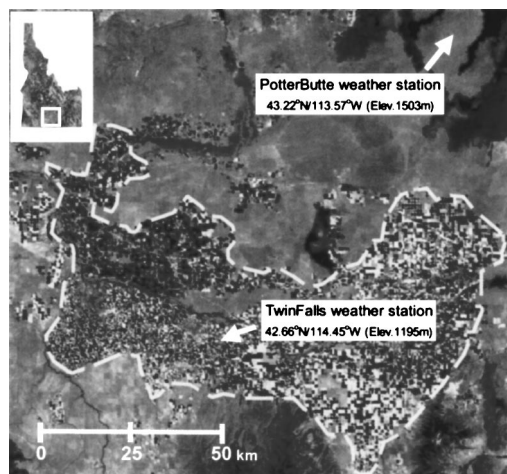
The predicted  $K_c$  by the EB model agreed well with the lysimeter measured values throughout the course of the growing season as the sugar beet field progressed from bare soil to full cover. Overall, the absolute difference between the EB model and lysimeter-derived  $K_c$  values averaged 0.05 with the exclusion of the three heavily contaminated dates for the thermal band pixel as noted previously. This is considered to be good predictive accuracy. The difference in estimated and lysimeter measured seasonal  $ET$  (April–September 1989) was only 17 mm (Fig. 2), because  $ET$  prediction errors for each image date behaved in a random manner and thus provided compensation while integrating over time. Bastiaanssen et al. (2005) provide a summary of error and uncertainty in  $ET$  estimates by SEBAL.

### Methodology

The study area is an agricultural area in south central Idaho known locally as Magic Valley (Fig. 3). Magic Valley has a semi-arid climate with annual precipitation of 280 mm (30 year average). The agriculture relies on irrigation from the Snake River and regional groundwater systems. Center pivot, wheel line, and furrow irrigation are the predominant irrigation systems in the area. The major crops are alfalfa, beans, corn, pasture, potatoes, sugar beets, winter and spring small grains, and peas.

Data input for the EB model included Landsat satellite images, a DEM, a landuse map, and hourly weather data. In this study, 12 Landsat satellite images (path40/row30) acquired March–October





**Fig. 3.** Magic Valley agricultural study area (circled by dotted line) and locations of weather stations

2000 by either Landsat 5 or 7 satellite were processed. Images (either Landsat 5 or 7) were available as frequently as every 8 days, depending on cloud conditions. The 12 image dates selected are March 15, April 8, March 2, June 3, June 19, July 5, July 21, August 14, August 22, September 7, September 15, and October 17, 2000. The Landsat overpass time was approximately 10:56 to 11:10 a.m. local standard time. A landuse map for the corresponding area was derived from the same satellite images and was used to predict aerodynamic roughness for the terrain. Weather data were obtained from the Twin Falls AgriMet weather station (U.S. Bureau of Reclamation), representative of agriculture areas, and from the Potter Butte RAWS weather station (U.S. Bureau of Land Management), representative of deserts surrounding the study area (Fig. 3). The  $ET_r$  was computed as a weighted average of the two stations with 80% weight given to the Twin Falls station, determined by considering the locations and landuses surrounding the two weather stations. All weather data were subjected to quality control analyses as described in EWRI (2002). Using the satellite image with ground truth information, a crop type classification map for the Magic Valley agricultural areas were derived for use in the  $K_c$  curve analysis. By the classification, about 70% of the agricultural area in the Magic Valley study area encircled by the dotted line in Fig. 3 was classified into one of the following eight crop groups: alfalfa, beans, sugar beets, corn, peas, potatoes, spring grain, and winter grain. About 20% of the classified fields were omitted from the analysis because of small field size that prevented sampling of interior pixels.

Crop coefficients ( $K_c$ ) for the 12 image dates were computed from the  $ET$  maps determined by the EB model on a pixel by pixel basis. The Landsat images have spatial resolution of 30 by 30 m for the shortwave bands, and 60 m (Landsat 7 ETM+) or 120 m (Landsat 5 TM) for the thermal infrared band. The resolution of calculated  $K_c$  maps are thus 60 or 120 m, as the EB model relies on the thermal band information to solve the energy balance. Theoretically, a minimum field size of  $240 \times 240$  m is required to ensure that at least one 120 m thermal pixel exists that is purely from the field area. The typical field sizes in the study area are on the order of  $400 \times 400$  m– $800 \times 800$  m. Therefore, the resolutions of the Landsat based  $ET$  images are fine enough to permit quantification of  $ET$  from most individual agricultural fields by sampling interiors of fields. Minor fields having sizes less than  $400 \times 400$  m were rejected and were not used for the

analysis. For all remaining fields, one sample pixel internal to the field was selected, and  $K_c$  and NDVI values were retrieved for the analyses.

Finally,  $K_c$  curves derived by the EB model for the eight major crop types were compared to widely used  $K_c$  curves in Idaho by Allen and Brockway (1983) and by AgriMet (2002b). The Allen and Brockway  $K_c$  curves were based on planting, full cover and harvest dates for various subregions of Idaho representing long-term averages, and used  $K_c$  curves developed by Wright (1981). The  $K_c$  values were summarized in that report as monthly averages. The AgriMet  $K_c$  curves are also based on Wright (1981)  $K_c$  tables with later refinements by Wright (1995) and by the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation (AgriMet 2002a), with modification by the Bureau of Reclamation to express the  $K_c$  curve for the total growing period as a function of percentage from emergence to effective full cover and percentage of effective full cover to termination (i.e., harvest).

## Results and Discussion

### Characteristics of $K_c$ and Vegetation Indices for 3,888 Classified Fields

The distribution of the  $K_c$  derived by the EB model and the corresponding NDVI values are shown in Figs. 4 and 5 for all classified fields for all 12 image dates. The variation in  $K_c$  among fields by date was generally greater than that for NDVI due to the impact of soil wetness on individual values for  $K_c$ . The NDVI is largely unaffected by soil moisture. During periods of full cover, the variation in  $K_c$  reduced because of the tendency for transpiration from crops to consume most of the available energy, thereby leaving less energy for direct evaporation of soil water. The periods of highest variation in  $K_c$  were during the development periods and periods of senescence or postharvest where NDVI was less than 0.6 (Figs. 4 and 5). Sample means and standard deviations for  $K_c$  and NDVI are summarized in Tables 1 and 2 for the eight crop categories and 12 image dates.

In general, the standard deviations for  $K_c$  populations averaged about 0.25 during periods of largest variation (periods of crop development and senescence) and about 0.09 during peak periods. Corresponding values for the coefficient of variation (standard deviation divided by the mean) averaged about 0.5–0.7 during the periods of large variation and about 0.1 during peak periods.

Many of the  $K_c$  and NDVI distributions approximated normal distributions and had little skew, especially when sample variance was small. As sample variance increased, for example during crop development, some skewness was evident. The positive skews in the  $K_c$  populations during development period reflect those fields experiencing substantial evaporation due to recent wetting by irrigation. Negative skews during full cover reflect the upper limit on  $ET$  imposed by energy availability. The averages for  $K_c$  and NDVI by date are plotted on the graphs in Figs. 4 and 5. The more symmetrical samples are discernable as those where the averaged value overlies the peak of the sample distribution (modal value). During the crop development and senescing periods,  $K_c$  is strongly impacted by the irrigation practices of individual fields. Also shifts in the planting schedules among fields appear as a wide range of  $K_c$  during the crop development and the harvest periods where the crop condition can dramatically change within a short time. The variation in  $K_c$  caused by differences in planting schedule is directly linked to variation in NDVI. Therefore, one might further investigate the “bandwidth” of  $K_c$  for the

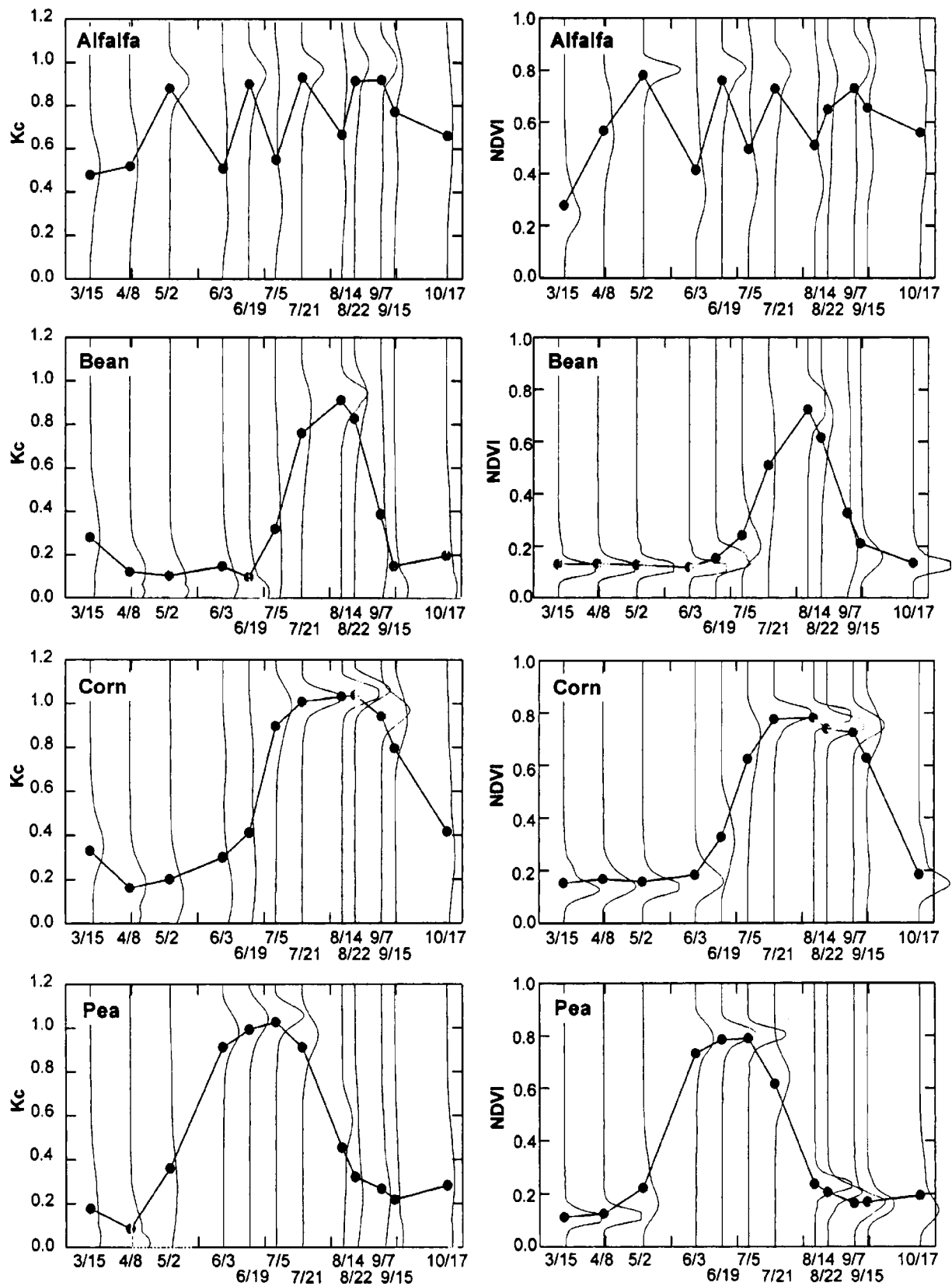


Fig. 4. Distribution of  $K_c$  and normalized difference vegetation index for all classified fields in study area for 2000

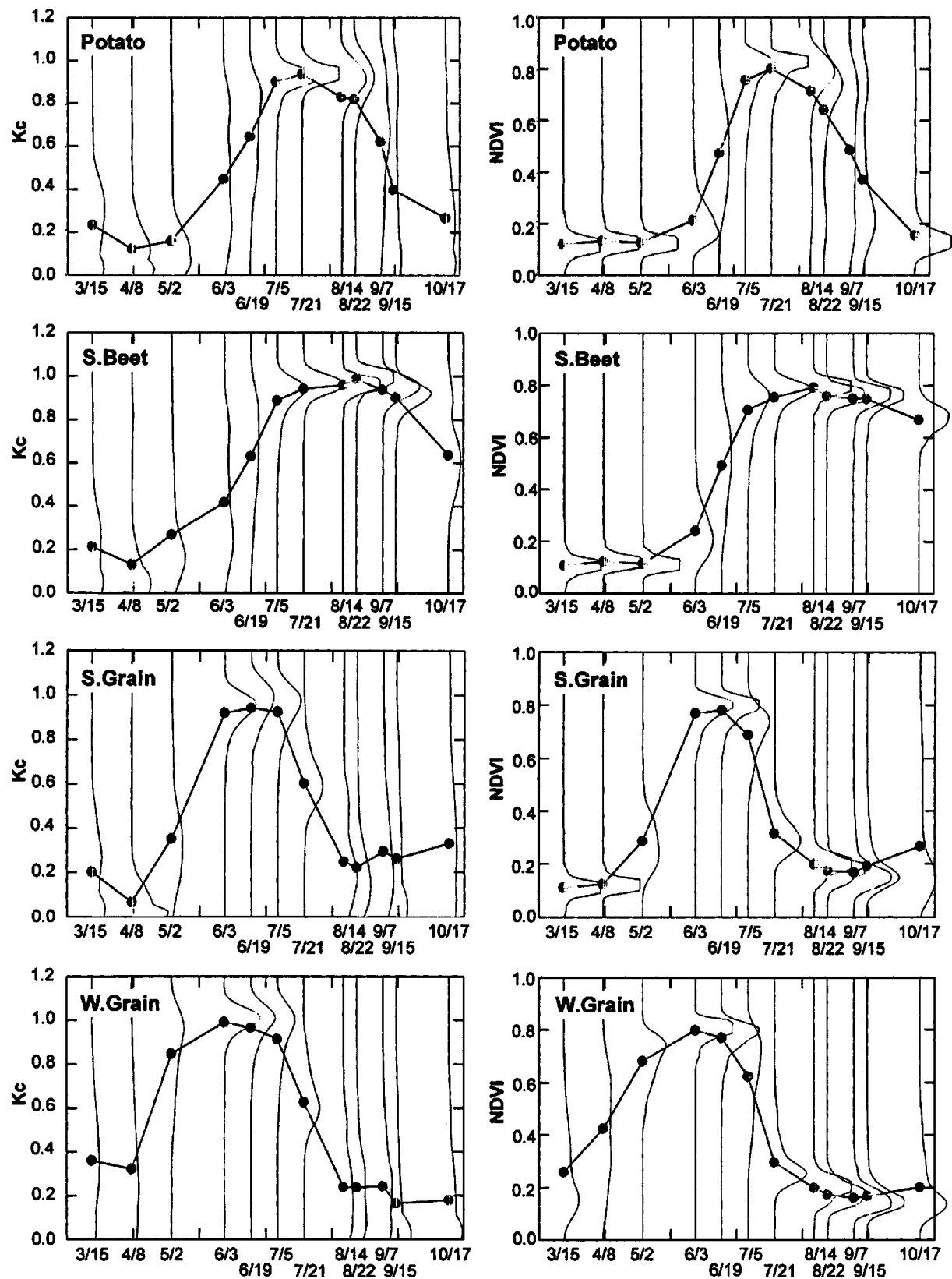


Fig. 5. Distribution of  $K_c$  and normalized difference vegetation index for all classified fields in study area for 2000

**Table 1.** Means and Standard Deviations of Crop Coefficient ( $K_c$ ) Values Derived by Satellite Based Energy Balance for 3,888 Classified Fields in Magic Valley during 2000

Statistics	Image date	Alfalfa	Bean	Corn	Pea	Potato	Sugar beet	Spring grain	Winter grain
Mean	3/15/00	0.48	0.28	0.33	0.18	0.23	0.21	0.20	0.36
	4/8/00	0.52	0.12	0.16	0.08	0.12	0.13	0.07	0.32
	5/2/00	0.88	0.10	0.20	0.36	0.16	0.27	0.35	0.85
	6/3/00	0.51	0.15	0.30	0.91	0.45	0.42	0.92	0.99
	6/19/00	0.90	0.10	0.41	0.99	0.65	0.63	0.94	0.96
	7/5/00	0.55	0.32	0.90	1.03	0.90	0.89	0.93	0.91
	7/21/00	0.93	0.76	1.01	0.91	0.94	0.94	0.60	0.63
	8/14/00	0.67	0.91	1.03	0.45	0.83	0.96	0.25	0.24
	8/22/00	0.91	0.83	1.04	0.32	0.82	0.99	0.22	0.24
	9/7/00	0.92	0.39	0.94	0.27	0.62	0.94	0.29	0.24
	9/15/00	0.77	0.15	0.79	0.22	0.40	0.90	0.26	0.16
	10/17/00	0.66	0.20	0.42	0.28	0.27	0.64	0.33	0.18
Standard deviation	3/15/00	0.15	0.17	0.16	0.16	0.17	0.19	0.17	0.22
	4/8/00	0.17	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.13	0.21	0.09	0.25
	5/2/00	0.14	0.10	0.19	0.23	0.17	0.21	0.20	0.18
	6/3/00	0.23	0.17	0.27	0.17	0.25	0.23	0.09	0.09
	6/19/00	0.12	0.16	0.27	0.14	0.20	0.21	0.11	0.12
	7/5/00	0.27	0.23	0.18	0.10	0.08	0.11	0.11	0.16
	7/21/00	0.10	0.17	0.06	0.16	0.04	0.10	0.13	0.15
	8/14/00	0.28	0.07	0.06	0.18	0.21	0.03	0.17	0.17
	8/22/00	0.16	0.18	0.11	0.20	0.24	0.05	0.18	0.18
	9/7/00	0.18	0.25	0.12	0.18	0.25	0.07	0.21	0.18
	9/15/00	0.25	0.21	0.29	0.22	0.34	0.07	0.25	0.21
	10/17/00	0.24	0.20	0.25	0.19	0.22	0.16	0.25	0.19
Number of classified fields <sup>a</sup>		325	432	474	314	717	516	546	564

<sup>a</sup>Classified fields include only fields having size of 400 m by 400 m or larger.

same growing stage of a crop by eliminating differences in the planting schedule through shifting  $K_c$  curves from each field to make the peaks of the NDVI curves for all fields the same. In this study, the variance in  $K_c$  caused by differences in planting schedules was retained in order to capture the overall average and variance for actual field management and cultural conditions in the study area.

Maximum values for  $K_c$  for individual fields peaked at about 1.10 for alfalfa, corn, peas, spring grain, and winter grain, and about 1.05 for beans, potatoes, and sugar beets (Figs. 4 and 5). Modal values for  $K_c$  (defined as the value of the 0.01 increment having the highest occurrence) during periods of full cover were close to 1.0 for alfalfa, spring grain, and winter grain, and averaged 1.04, 1.02, 0.95, 0.94, and 0.97 for corn, peas, bean, potatoes, and sugar beets (Table 3). These modal values, representing the most frequently occurring value, characterize the typical  $K_c$  value for fields at full cover for the image dates when NDVI was at its maximum or near maximum value. Table 3 compares these modal values with the maximum  $K_c$  value recommended by Wright (1981) for the same crops. The modal values are quite similar to the peak values of Wright (1981) except for potatoes, where Wright's value of 0.78 is much less than the average modal value of 0.94. Some of this difference may be caused by differences in modern varieties of potatoes and planting densities and in impacts of differences between irrigation system types, with center pivot irrigation being practiced on most potatoes in Magic

Valley during 2000 as compared to less frequent solid-set sprinkler irrigation practiced during the measurements by Wright (1981). It is noted that  $K_c$  values derived by Wright (1981) were based on the 1982 Kimberly Penman alfalfa reference method (Wright 1982) computed daily, whereas the EB model derived  $K_c$ s were based on the standardized Penman–Monteith alfalfa reference method computed hourly. Small differences between the two methods have been evaluated and summarized by EWRI (2002). However, because the same  $ET_r$  method was used in the EB model calibration and to determine  $K_c$ s from the sampled fields, the  $K_c$  values obtained from the EB model were not biased by the reference ET method and are thus directly comparable to those by Wright (1981).

Some of the extreme  $K_c$  values for individual fields (those greater than 1.05) were no doubt caused by estimation error of the EB model or may be due to differences in weather conditions within the 120 by 70 km study area. The EB model assumes that the weather condition of entire study area is the same when computing crop coefficients. This error range has been observed to change with image size and thus variation in weather conditions of the study area. For the study area described here, the  $K_c$  estimation error caused by the differences in weather conditions across the area is probably less than  $\pm 0.05$ , which is an acceptable range of error. Values for  $K_c$  that fall in the range of 1.0–1.05 may represent fields that were recently irrigated so that the canopy surface is wet or where the canopy may have dried, but the soil

**Table 2.** Means and Standard Deviations of Normalized Difference Vegetation Index for 3,888 Classified Fields in Magic Valley during 2000

Statistics	Image date	Alfalfa	Bean	Corn	Pea	Potato	Sugar beet	Spring grain	Winter grain
Mean	3/15/00	0.28	0.13	0.15	0.11	0.12	0.11	0.11	0.26
	4/8/00	0.57	0.13	0.17	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.12	0.42
	5/2/00	0.78	0.13	0.16	0.22	0.13	0.11	0.29	0.68
	6/3/00	0.41	0.12	0.18	0.73	0.21	0.24	0.77	0.80
	6/19/00	0.76	0.15	0.33	0.79	0.47	0.49	0.78	0.77
	7/5/00	0.49	0.24	0.62	0.79	0.76	0.71	0.69	0.62
	7/21/00	0.73	0.51	0.78	0.62	0.80	0.75	0.32	0.30
	8/14/00	0.51	0.72	0.78	0.24	0.72	0.79	0.20	0.20
	8/22/00	0.65	0.62	0.74	0.21	0.64	0.76	0.18	0.17
	9/7/00	0.73	0.33	0.72	0.16	0.49	0.75	0.17	0.16
	9/15/00	0.65	0.21	0.63	0.17	0.37	0.75	0.19	0.17
	10/17/00	0.56	0.14	0.18	0.19	0.16	0.67	0.27	0.20
Standard deviation	3/15/00	0.09	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.14
	4/8/00	0.11	0.06	0.07	0.04	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.17
	5/2/00	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.09	0.03	0.03	0.10	0.08
	6/3/00	0.15	0.02	0.09	0.13	0.08	0.09	0.06	0.03
	6/19/00	0.07	0.03	0.11	0.07	0.15	0.14	0.05	0.05
	7/5/00	0.20	0.07	0.13	0.04	0.10	0.09	0.09	0.14
	7/21/00	0.11	0.16	0.06	0.09	0.05	0.08	0.08	0.09
	8/14/00	0.19	0.07	0.04	0.04	0.18	0.03	0.04	0.04
	8/22/00	0.15	0.13	0.07	0.04	0.19	0.03	0.04	0.04
	9/7/00	0.17	0.21	0.12	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.06	0.05
	9/15/00	0.19	0.12	0.21	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.09	0.06
	10/17/00	0.17	0.03	0.07	0.09	0.10	0.05	0.19	0.11
Number of classified fields <sup>a</sup>		325	432	474	314	717	516	546	564

<sup>a</sup>Classified fields include only fields having size of 400 m by 400 m or larger.

surface is very wet. Under these conditions, the  $K_c$  is expected to exceed 1.0 representing the alfalfa reference. This is especially true for crops like corn that have larger aerodynamic roughness than alfalfa.

Peak values for the estimated  $K_c$  averaged over all fields are included in Table 3. These values are generally lower than modal values due to impacts of some fields having relatively low NDVI. Averages of the estimated peak values were greater than peak values of Wright (1981) for three crops (corn, peas, and potatoes), essentially equal to Wright (1981) for two crops (sugar beets and

winter grain), and lower than Wright (1981) for two crops (beans and spring grain). The lower average peak  $K_c$  for spring grain may have been partly caused by a wide range in planting dates, causing individual fields to reach full cover and then begin to senesce at different times. Alfalfa  $K_c$  values from the EB model were not compared with peak values of Wright (1981) because of the lowering of average  $K_c$  for all image dates, caused by the occurrence of some recently harvested fields being in less than full cover condition on each image date. In general, agreement between the estimated peak  $K_c$  and Wright (1981) is considered to be very good. The following sections are a discussion of some individual crop types regarding Figs. 4 and 5.

#### Alfalfa

Predominately, only alfalfa fields having four-cutting cycles per year appear in Figs. 4 and 5, although a significant minority of fields in Magic Valley are cut only three times. This bias occurred because of our use of training fields during crop type classification having four cuttings. These fields represent the current trend in alfalfa management and production in the Magic Valley. The NDVI distribution shows that dates for the first cutting were relatively uniform in time among fields (Figs. 4 and 5), but became less uniform by the third and fourth cuttings, due to the integration of differences in field management and timings of cuttings.

#### Corn and Sugar Beets

Corn and sugar beet fields exhibited relatively consistent NDVI distributions. A relatively large variation during the crop develop-

**Table 3.** Modal and Peak Mean Values for  $K_c$  Derived from Satellite Based Evapotranspiration Maps and Peak Mean  $K_c$  from Wright (1981)

Crop	Range in modal $K_c$ from energy balance (EB) model during period of effective full cover	Peak mean $K_c$ from EB model	Peak mean $K_c$ from Wright (1981)
Alfalfa	0.95–1.02	n/a <sup>a</sup>	1.0
Bean	0.95	0.91	0.95
Corn	1.02–1.06	1.04	0.95
Pea	1.0–1.05	1.03	0.93
Potato	0.92–0.96	0.94	0.78
Sugar beet	0.95–1.0	0.99	1.0
Spring grain	0.98–1.0	0.94	1.0
Winter grain	0.98–1.02	0.99	1.0

<sup>a</sup>Not available.



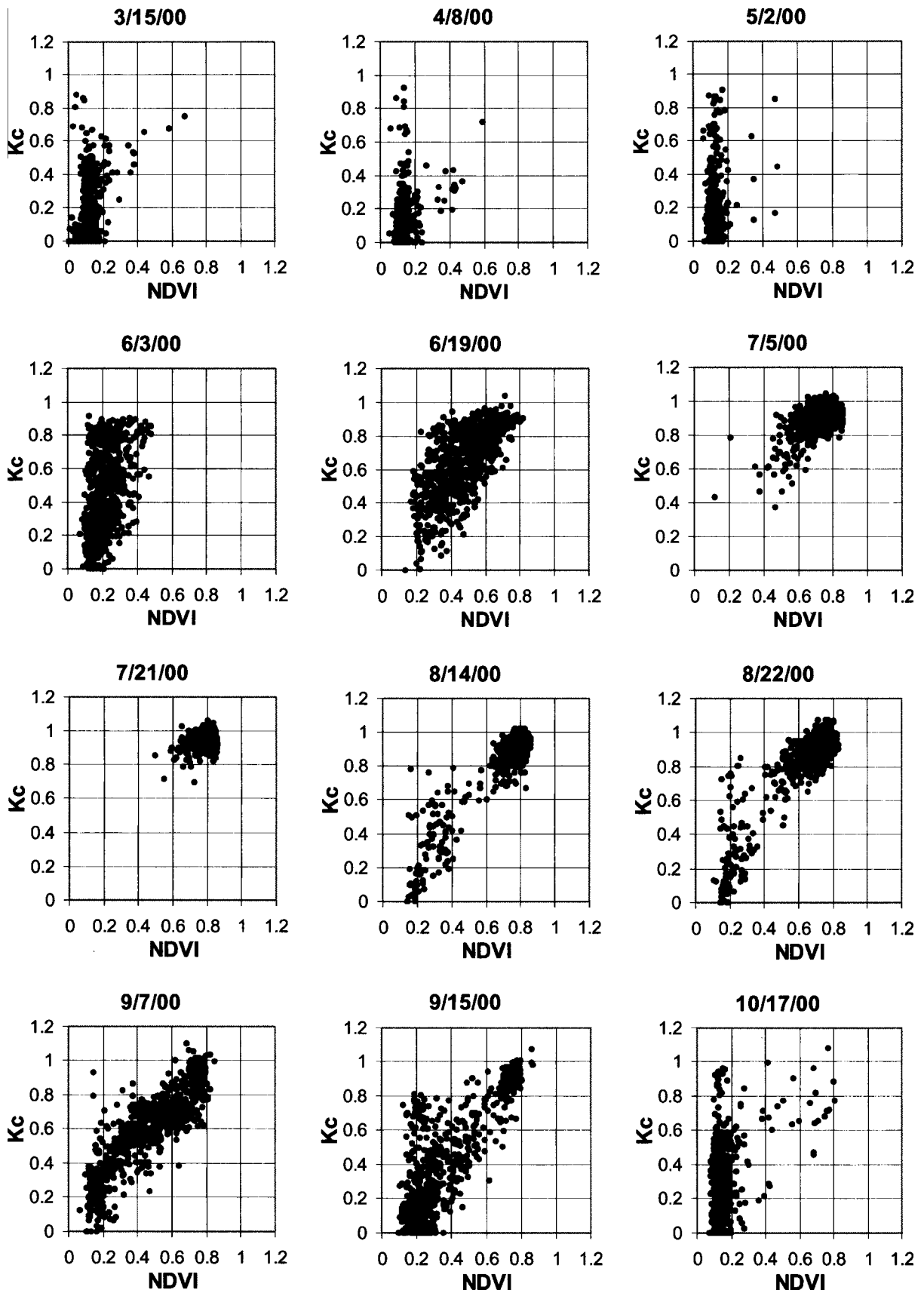
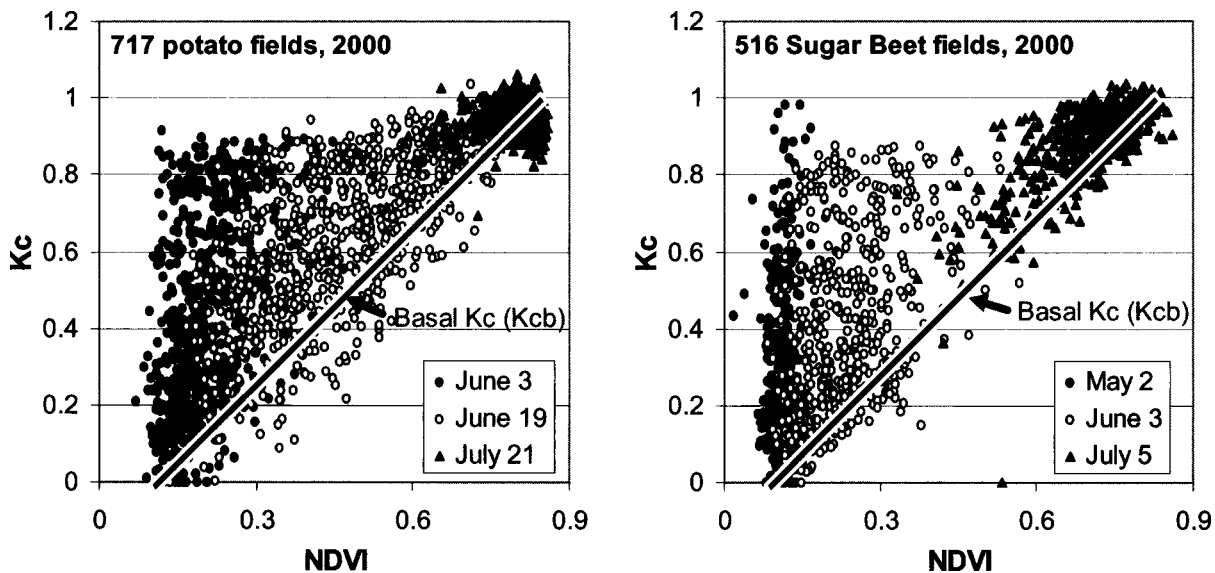


Fig. 6.  $K_c$  versus normalized difference vegetation index for 717 potato fields in study area



**Fig. 7.** Crop coefficient versus normalized difference vegetation index for 717 potato fields (left) and 516 sugar beet fields (right) in Magic Valley area of Idaho, for three Landsat dates in crop developing periods during 2000

ing periods reflects differences in crop growth among individual fields. A very large variation in  $K_c$  was exhibited during the last image date October 17. By this date, it is likely that some farmers had already terminated irrigation, causing some reduction in evaporation from soil, while others had not. In addition, much of the corn crop appears to have been harvested for silage by October 17, according to the NDVI. Therefore the wide range in  $K_c$  reflects variation in soil wetness or the presence/absence of vegetation. The relatively high NDVI on October 17 for nearly all sugar beet fields indicates that the crops were still actively growing, but with a reduced rate of transpiration, possibly due to frost or temperature effects on the stomatal opening.

#### Potato and Grains

Potato and grain fields had relatively wide and skewed distributions of  $K_c$  during the full cover period, while other crops showed relatively normal and symmetrical distributions for the period. This may have been caused by wider variation in the planting schedules for these crops, or the effect of two or more substantially different crop varieties. Potato crops in Magic Valley are characteristically split between early harvested varieties and late harvested varieties. Also potato growth is greatly affected by fertility and physical property of the soil. The wide range in harvesting is reflected in the wide range in NDVI during the September image dates.

#### Relationship between $K_c$ and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index

Several studies and applications of remote sensing have established relationships between  $K_c$  and NDVI for purposes of mapping spatial variability in  $K_c$  (Neale et al. 1989; Bausch and Neale 1989; Bausch 1993, 1995; Choudhury et al. 1994). Most of these studies predicted primarily the transpiration coefficient or “basal”  $K_c$ , because vegetation indices are little impacted by evaporation from soil. Fig. 6 shows a series of relationships between  $K_c$  from the EB model and NDVI for potato fields throughout the year 2000. As discussed previously in Figs. 4 and 5,  $K_c$  and NDVI have a clear relation during mid season, but, as expected, no clear

relation holds during periods having low ground cover due to large ranges in the soil evaporation component. Potato fields were in a bare soil condition on March 15, and therefore NDVI values were below 0.2 for most fields. However, the  $K_c$  values varied from 0 to over 0.6 according to the level of residual surface moisture from winter, which is impacted by the previous crop and tillage history. The same impact is shown for the April and May images and for June 3, where effects of pre- or postplanting irrigation created a substantial range in  $K_c$ .

The NDVI and  $K_c$  show a strong relationship during the period from June 19 to September 15. During this period, fields having high NDVI values also had high  $K_c$ , because of the frequent irrigation coupled with high transpiration rates and reduced opportunity for evaporation from soil. On September 15, a wide range of  $K_c$  occurred in the fields having lower NDVI, because these fields were likely harvested and therefore ET from such fields depends only on residual surface moisture. Finally, in the fall (October 17), most fields returned to a bare soil condition, although there was still a large variation in  $K_c$ .

The limitation of  $K_c$  estimation by NDVI is more clear when a series of  $K_c$  versus NDVI relationships are overlaid. Fig. 7 shows  $K_c$  versus NDVI relationships for potato and sugar beet fields, for three satellite dates during the crop development period. For both crops, the  $K_c$  versus NDVI relationship appears as a similar triangular shaped cloud of points, with the minimum  $K_c$  increasing as NDVI increases. The bottom line of the triangle is indicated as a “basal  $K_c$ ” in Fig. 7, and explains the contribution of crop transpiration in the total  $K_c$ . Any point above the “basal  $K_c$ ” line reflects some contribution of soil evaporation, where the soil evaporation portion is independent of NDVI.

From these analysis results, it is clear that the estimation of ET for specific fields using a general crop coefficient curve or a NDVI-based  $K_c$  value is difficult, especially during periods of low vegetation cover. During these periods, an energy balance ET estimation model is a useful tool both for estimating the average ET of an area, and for estimating ET from individual fields. The  $K_c$  distributions during mid-season typically had smaller ranges with a more normal type of distribution. Therefore, estimating ET

from traditional “mean”  $K_c$  curves is relatively easier during mid-season periods if applied general curves describe the average  $K_c$  for the area of interest. However, if one desires to estimate ET from individual fields using mean  $K_c$  curves, a range of  $\pm 0.1$  variation in  $K_c$  values appears to exist even during the mid-season. Therefore, even if the  $K_c$  curve perfectly describes the average values for the area of interest, a  $\pm 0.1$  error in  $K_c$  is inevitable. The error range in predicted  $K_c$  would reduce significantly, especially during periods of low vegetation cover, if a dual  $K_c$  procedure that predicts the increase in  $K_c$  caused by a wet soil surface layer were utilized, for example those by Wright (1982) or Allen et al. (1998, 2005). These types of  $K_c$  estimates were not evaluated during this study due to the lack of knowledge of irrigation dates for individual fields.

### **Comparison of Mean $K_c$ Curves from Energy Balance Model with Traditional $K_c$ Curves**

Averages of the  $K_c$  derived by the EB model for all classified fields are shown in Fig. 8 along with the general  $K_c$  curves of Allen and Brockway (1983) and AgriMet for year 2000 (AgriMet 2002b). The Allen and Brockway curves were developed for the Magic Valley area using  $K_c$  tables of Wright (1981), and have been expressed in terms of monthly averages. The curves have been used by the Idaho Department of Water Resources for evaluating water rights transfers and for planning studies and basin wide water balances. AgriMet curves by the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation (AgriMet 2002b) are a source of near-real time  $K_c$  and ET information frequently applied in this region. The basic curves for AgriMet are based on Wright (1981, 1995) and are typically adjusted each year using cropping dates based on surveys with University extension services and other contacts. Once the starting dates are determined for each crop, two other dates termed cover date and terminate date are estimated using historical data, and the basic curves are adjusted, timewise, based on the three “key” dates. The initially determined curves are occasionally adjusted during the cropping season by AgriMet based on reports by field experts (AgriMet 2002a).

The Allen and Brockway curves agreed relatively well with the EB-determined curves for sugar beet and grain crops, and agreed fairly well with those for alfalfa, where the  $K_c$  curve by Allen and Brockway was an averaged curve representing a mixture of cutting practices, and for potatoes, although the peak  $K_c$  for potatoes derived from the EB model averaged about 0.15 higher than that by Allen and Brockway. The curves from Allen and Brockway did not agree well for the three other crops (beans, corn, and peas). The good agreement between the satellite derived and Allen and Brockway  $K_c$  curves for three to five of eight crops is surprising when one considers that the Allen and Brockway curves represent long term averages developed in 1983 rather than specific curves for 2000 as derived from the EB model. The reasons for disagreement between curves for bean, corn, and pea fields are unknown, but it is possible that the popular varieties of crops or field management, including planting dates and plant spacing, might have changed since 1983.

The AgriMet  $K_c$  curves agreed well with the ET-determined  $K_c$  curves for alfalfa, bean, corn, potato, and sugar beet crops. Agreement was poor for pea and grain fields. Most differences between estimated and AgriMet general  $K_c$  curves may have been caused by nonrepresentative emergence and termination dates used by AgriMet for the particular crops in the Magic Valley area, and by more rapid growth rates and senescence rates predicted by AgriMet for peas and grain. In all situations, average peak  $K_c$  values

by the EB model were equal to or greater than peak  $K_c$  values by AgriMet and Allen and Brockway, indicating that sampled Magic Valley fields did not suffer reduced ET as compared to the potential ET defined by the Wright (1981, 1995)  $K_c$  curves. This indicates good crop and water management practices in the region.

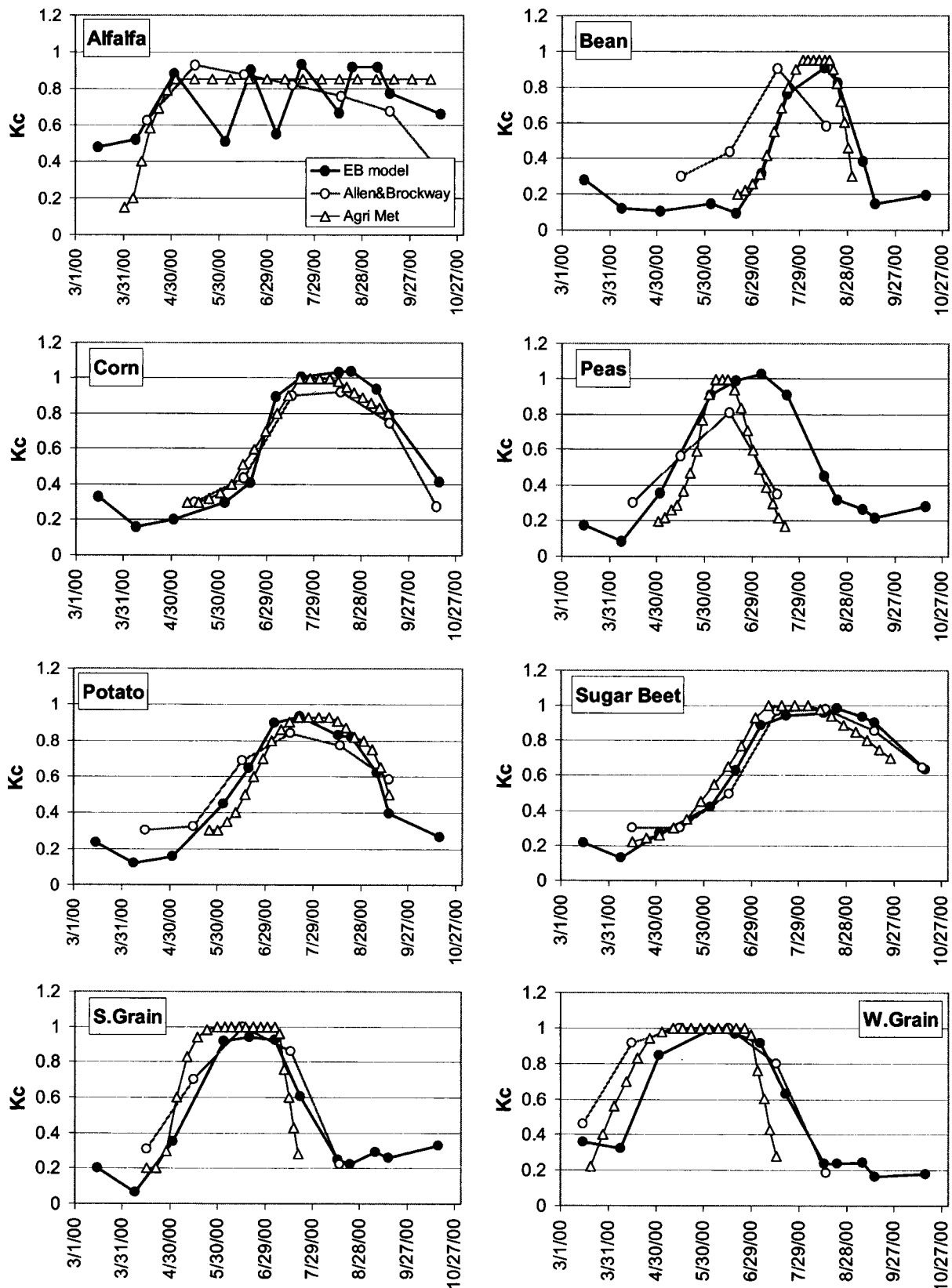
### **Use of Satellite Based Energy Balance Model to Refine Emergence, Cover, and Termination Dates for AgriMet Curves**

Fig. 9 shows the average  $K_c$  curves by the EB model for the classified fields along with AgriMet  $K_c$  curves that were modified by adjusting the three “key” dates used in computing daily  $K_c$  values, namely the so-called start/cover/terminate dates of AgriMet (2002a). These dates were adjusted to make the AgriMet curves better fit the mean curves by the EB model. The adjustments were applied only to the three key dates, with the rest of the curve shape defined by the tabular values in AgriMet that express  $K_c$  as a function of percentage time from emergence to cover and from cover to termination. No adjustment was made to magnitudes of  $K_c$  values or curves. The adjusted key dates may more likely represent the general key dates for the study area for year 2000, if both the EB model derived and the basic AgriMet  $K_c$  curves are assumed to be reliable. Following the adjustment to key dates, the AgriMet curves almost perfectly fit the curves by the EB model for most crops, as shown in Fig. 9, with the exception of corn and spring grain.

Table 4 lists original AgriMet key dates for year 2000 and adjusted key dates. For alfalfa, the starting date was shifted to 12 days earlier. For bean and potato fields, AgriMet  $K_c$  values agreed well with the EB model derived values without any adjustment (see the Fig. 8), therefore impact of adjustment to key cropping dates was relatively small. The AgriMet  $K_c$  curve for corn did not agree well with the estimated curve, even though a large adjustment to key dates was applied. Corn and spring grain were the only crops where an adjusted AgriMet curve could not reproduce the curve derived by the EB model. A large adjustment was applied to dates for the AgriMet pea curve so that the adjusted cultivation period was much longer than originally. It indicates that the cultivation period predicted for the original AgriMet curve may have been too short. Peas are often used as a nurse crop for alfalfa, where alfalfa begins to grow following harvest of the peas. However, this combination was not observed in  $K_c$  from sampled pea fields, possibly due to limitations by the training set used during classifications.

The AgriMet curve for sugar beet crops agreed almost perfectly with the mean estimated curve, after adjustment to an earlier start and later harvest date. This might represent the actual field management practiced by farmers, as farmers tend to grow sugar beets longer in order to harvest beets having more sugar. Large adjustments were applied to grain fields. These large adjustments were required because the original AgriMet curves did not describe the slower reduction of  $K_c$  observed using the EB model during the late season. The rapid decrement of  $K_c$  in the original AgriMet curves leave some doubt, and the Allen and Brockway curve shown in Fig. 8 might have been more appropriate for this area.

In this analysis, the results from the EB model were used to refine the three key dates for AgriMet curves. Developing complete  $K_c$  curves using only EB model results might be a more straightforward and reliable way to obtain representative  $K_c$  curves for the study area. However, the development of curves must be done postseason or with at least a 1 month delay to



**Fig. 8.** Average  $K_c$  by satellite based energy balance model for all classified fields compared with general  $K_c$  curves for Twin Falls from Allen and Brockway (1983), and from AgriMet (2002b)



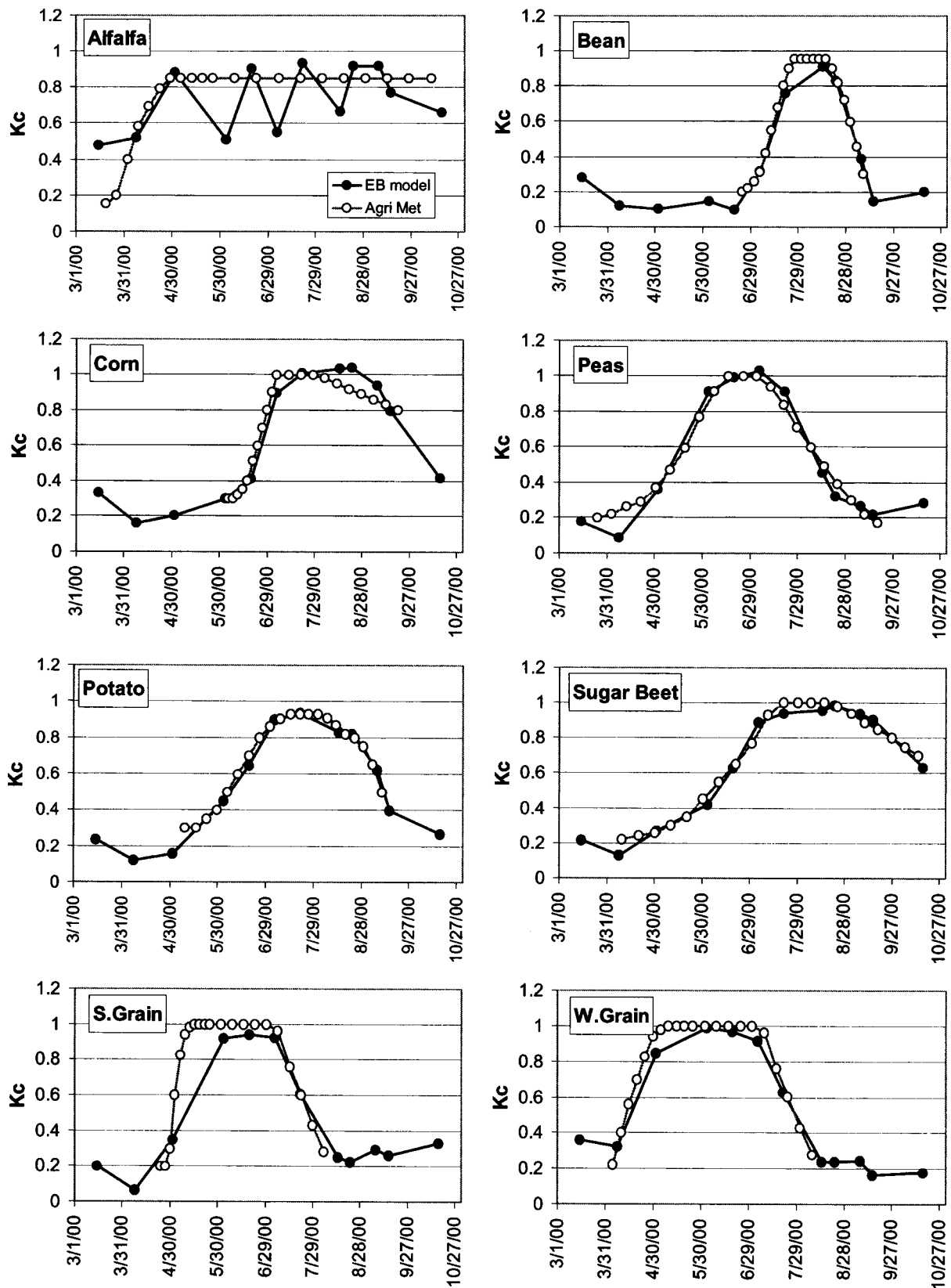


Fig. 9. Average  $K_c$  by satellite based energy balance model for classified fields compared with AgriMet  $K_c$  curves adjusted for three key dates

**Table 4.** Original and Adjusted Key Dates for AgriMet  $K_c$  Curves and Differences (Days)

Crop	Item	Start date	Cover date	Terminate date
Alfalfa	Original <sup>a</sup>	1 April	26 May	—
	Adjusted	20 March	26 May	—
	Difference <sup>b</sup>	-12	0	—
Bean	Original	20 June	4 August	30 August
	Adjusted	24 June	31 July	8 September
	Difference	4	-4	9
Corn	Original	10 May	20 July	14 September
	Adjusted	5 June	5 July	20 September
	Difference	26	-15	6
Pea	Original	1 May	10 June	20 July
	Adjusted	25 March	25 June	18 September
	Difference	-37	15	60
Potato	Original	25 May	20 July	15 September
	Adjusted	10 May	15 July	10 September
	Difference	-15	-5	-5
Sugar beet	Original	15 April	10 July	25 September
	Adjusted	10 April	21 July	14 October
	Difference	-5	11	19
Spring grain	Original	15 April	19 June	20 July
	Adjusted	24 April	25 May	5 August
	Difference	9	-25	16
Winter grain	Original	20 March	3 June	15 July
	Adjusted	5 April	25 May	8 August
	Difference	16	-9	24

<sup>a</sup>AgriMet does not issue original key dates from their web site. These original dates were analyzed using AgriMet crop evapotranspiration (ET) data and solving for key dates that reproduced the ET data. Therefore the dates shown might be incorrect by plus-minus 1 day from the actual values. The start date used by AgriMet represents the date of emergence.

<sup>b</sup>Negative differences indicate that the adjusted date is earlier than the original date.

provide for image processing time. Therefore combination of the traditional  $K_c$  curve or a curve derived from a previous year using the EB model with key dates determined by satellite might be a useful method for real-time field water management.

### Applicability for Humid Regions

An interesting question was posed by a peer reviewer for this paper regarding the applicability of the presented techniques in humid regions where higher chances of cloudy dates are expected. This issue is discussed from two aspects; the first aspect regards problems caused by reductions in satellite image availability due to clouds, and the other aspect is the applicability of satellite-derived  $K_c$  curves to periods having cloudy conditions.

During the period of this study, two Landsat satellites (5 and 7) both having return periods of 16 days were available. This means that approximately four image dates per month were potentially available if conditions were clear. Landsat image paths have more than 30% overlap at 43° latitude, where the study area was located, so that more than 60% of the land mass resides within an “overlapping area” between adjacent paths. The overlapping area increases as latitude increases, and vice versa. If the area of interest happens to be in the “overlapped area” of two paths, image availability doubles, which means the potential availability of eight image dates (i.e.,  $K_c$  values) per month using Landsat. Land-

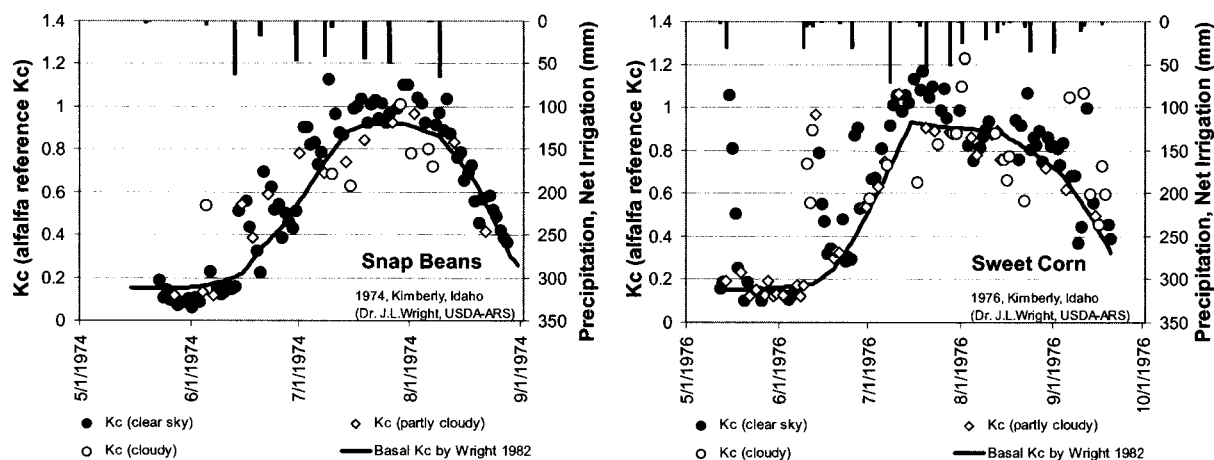
sat 7 has been out of order since May 2003. Thus, currently, only four image dates per a month are potentially possible for path-overlapping areas.

Energy balance based ET estimation methods cannot be applied with cloudy satellite images. Therefore, the image availability is reduced in humid regions having clouds, and the reduction of image frequency affects the estimation accuracy of  $K_c$  or ET for integrated time periods. However, as long as clear-sky images are obtainable with a certain frequency (e.g., one image per month) during the crop cultivating period, one can successfully describe the actual  $K_c$  curves as presented in this paper, especially for crops having longer developing and full cover periods, such as corn, potato, sugar beets, and grain crops as shown in Figs. 4 and 5. Development of full  $K_c$  curves might be difficult if the availability of clear-sky images is less than once per month during the cultivating period. In such cases, the techniques followed in this paper might be used only as supplemental information, for example, to help determine any time shifting adjustment to traditional  $K_c$  curves or to determine actual  $K_c$  or ET distributions for only dates when clear sky images are available.

Once  $K_c$  values are established or calibrated using clear-sky satellite images, one applies this value to predict ET during intervening periods including those having cloudy days. However, there is some question whether  $K_c$  values determined under clear sky conditions apply to cloudy conditions, due to impact of clouds on stomatal responses and albedo. Figs. 1 and 10 show lysimeter observed  $K_c$  for sugar beet (1989) bean (1974), and corn (1976) crops at Kimberly, Id., along with calculated “basal”  $K_c$  curves based on Wright (1982) (Fig. 10 only). Some extreme high points in the  $K_c$  graphs are due to wetting events caused by either rainfall or irrigation. Cloudiness of each day is indicated by the ratio of measured solar radiation to the theoretical clear sky solar radiation ( $R_s/R_{so}$ ).  $K_c$  values under clear sky conditions and cloudy conditions were similar, especially for sugar beets in 1989 (Fig. 1). A simple statistical analysis ( $F$  test at the 95% level of confidence) was applied to the bean and corn data shown in Fig. 10 to examine whether the magnitude of difference between observed total  $K_c$  and the basal  $K_c$  ( $K_c - K_{cb}$ ) are affected by cloudiness. For the analysis, surface soil moisture was simply indicated by three levels; wet, moist, and dry, according to the days since precipitation/irrigation, as actual soil moisture measurements were not available. There was a slight statistically significant difference in  $K_c$  between clear and cloudy conditions for corn ( $p = 0.05$ ). However, the overall analysis using the two crops together indicated that there was no statistical evidence that cloudiness (i.e.,  $R_s/R_{so}$ ) impacted  $K_c$  measured for any of the surface moisture levels. Therefore, we tentatively conclude that the  $K_c$  curves developed using clear sky satellite images are applicable to cloudy days in between satellite images, without any adjustment. Future study is recommended on this issue, through experiments designed to investigate this effect and using more crop types.

### Summary and Conclusions

The actual distribution of  $K_c$  over many agricultural fields were investigated by crop type, using crop evapotranspiration derived from a satellite based EB model.  $K_c$  had a strong relation to NDVI during mid season periods. On the other hand, large ranges in  $K_c$  were observed during early and late growth periods when fields were in a nearly bare soil condition. For those field conditions and periods, the EB model is a useful tool for calculating  $K_c$  and ET for individual fields. The evaluation of two widely used sets of



**Fig. 10.**  $K_c$  by lysimeter measured evapotranspiration in different cloud levels, for beans (1974) and corn (1976), unpublished lysimeter data from Wright (2000), USDA-ARS, Kimberly, Id. Cloud levels were defined by ratio of measured solar radiation to theoretical clear sky solar radiation ( $R_s/R_{so}$ ) as: “clear sky:”  $R_s/R_{so} \geq 0.85$ ; “partly cloudy:”  $0.7 \leq R_s/R_{so} < 0.85$ ; “cloudy:”  $R_s/R_{so} < 0.7$ .

traditional  $K_c$  based ET curves in Idaho, one from Allen and Brockway (1983) and the other from the AgriMet internet based system (AgriMet 2002b), show that the traditional  $K_c$  curves represent the average field conditions relatively well for some crop types, but are quite different for crops where the variety or the actual field management may have changed since the traditional curves were developed. In the last part of this paper, the AgriMet  $K_c$  curves were adjusted according to  $K_c$  derived by the EB model by determining new values for the three “key” dates used to construct the crop curves. This simple adjustment worked very well in adjusting AgriMet curves to describe the general field conditions of the study area.

The satellite based energy balance model appears to be a useful method for evaluating the variation in populations of evapotranspiration and thus crop coefficient. This type of investigation provides some indication of the type of variation to be expected among fields of the same crop type. It is also useful for review of traditional crop curves and crop growth dates, or in developing “mean”  $K_c$  curves that represent the impact of surface wetting by rain and irrigation on the  $K_c$  curve. Further, one can use the technique, for example, to define the  $K_c$  curve for center pivot systems having high frequency irrigation. It is tentatively concluded through a statistical analysis for impact of cloudiness, that the presented techniques are applicable in humid regions also.

Considering that the mean  $K_c$  curves of Wright (1981, 1995) were fitted to lysimeter measurements representing high levels of water and agronomic management, and considering the relatively close agreement between the EB derived  $K_c$  curves and those of Wright during midseason for nearly 4,000 fields containing eight crops, it does not appear that ET for sampled crops in Magic Valley suffer from reduced ET caused by nonideal management or field conditions.

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